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ABSTRACT

This packet of information presents material for journalism educators to use in celebrating Scholastic Journalism Week, February 22-28, 1998. It contains a history of journalism in outline form and in newspaper article format; 13 classroom activities; 11 special activities for outside the classroom; a sample press release; a sample editorial; information from the book "Journalism Kids Do Better"; and a small poster. (RS)

Scholastic Journalism Week
(February 27-28, 1998)

Information Packet:

- History of journalism in outline form and in a newspaper article format
- Classroom activities
- Special activities for outside the classroom
- A sample press release
- A sample editorial
- Information from the book "Journalism Kids Do Better"
- A small poster

Compiled by: Leslie Shipp and Jim Shuman
For: The Journalism Education Association (JEA)
Date: January 30, 1998

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"Leading the way in scholastic journalism and media education"

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January 30, 1998

Dear JEA Member,

Enclosed you will find this year's material for Scholastic Journalism Week, Feb. 22-28. JEA members and their students are asked to plan observances and involve local media and others in the effort to draw positive recognition to scholastic journalism.

I know how difficult it is to find time to promote your own program or scholastic journalism in general. That's why Leslie Shipp, our Scholastic Journalism Week committee chairperson and Jim Shuman, former chairperson, has compiled a packet of information designed to help you plan your celebration. It includes the following:

- *History of journalism in outline form and in a newspaper article format*
- *Classroom activities*
- *Special activities for outside the classroom*
- *A sample press release*
- *A sample editorial*
- *Information from the book* ***Journalism Kids Do Better***
- *A small poster*

This week is a prime opportunity to raise awareness of student publications in your school; promote First Amendment rights of high school students; promote the value of journalism in the secondary school curriculum; inform others of the academic and life skills students learn from publications; and recognize the efforts of advisers; journalism teachers and students.

If you come up with interesting ways to celebrate Scholastic Journalism Week, we'd love to hear about them. We would probably like to include them in next year's packet of materials, so please let JEA headquarters or Leslie Shipp know what you're doing, and what we can do to help you celebrate this important week.

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Good Luck and let us know if we can be of futher assistance.

Sincerely,

Linda S. Puntney

Linda S. Puntney
JEA Executive Director

2A

Historical Outline of American Journalism

I. Colonial Newspapers
- A. Colonial pre-newspaper communication
  1. Word-of-mouth
  2. Letters from England
  3. Newspapers from England
  4. Broadsides
- B. First Colonial Newspaper
  1. Publick Occurrences Both Forreign and Domestick
  2. Published by Ben Harris on September 25, 1690
  3. Lasted one issue because content disturbed Governor of Massachusetts
- C. First Continuous Newspaper
  1. Boston News-Letter
  2. Published by John Campbell — first issue, April 24, 1704
  3. Published by authority of the governor of the colony
- D. John Peter Zenger
  1. Published the New York Weekly Journal, starting in 1734
  2. Charged with libel for printing news that disturbed the Governor of New York
  3. Trial was held in 1735; defense was that Zenger printed the truth; Zenger was acquitted
- E. Characteristics of Colonial Newspapers
  1. Four pages, printed with worn type
  2. Page size about half of modern newspapers
  3. No headlines as we know them today (small type, usually all caps)
  4. Usually no more than 200 copies printed an hour
  5. Editorials and news mixed in same story
  6. Advertising was small, comparable to today's classified section
  7. Considered a luxury— only 5 percent of the families bought a newspaper in 1765
- F. Sources of News
  1. Mainly from Europe by ships which crossed the Atlantic in 4 to 8 weeks
  2. News was published in America about two months after it was published in London
  3. Some of the news came from captains of ships
  4. Some news came from letters from England
- G. Types of News
  1. War and politics
  2. Local and intercolonial news
  3. Piracy, fires, counterfeiting, robberies, etc.
  4. Maritime News
  5. Weather, but no forecasts
  6. Obituaries
  7. Religion
  8. Little or no sports

II. American Revolutionary War Newspapers
- A. Stamp Act — 1765
  1. Tax on all legal documents, official papers, books, and newspapers
  2. Many newspapers published as handbills to evade the tax
  3. Some newspapers suspended temporarily
  4. Act repealed in 1766
- B. Format
  1. Larger pages
  2. More illustrations
  3. More columns

C. Coverage of War News
   1. No reporters on the battlefields
   2. Coverage through arrival of private letters
   3. Stories from other newspapers

D. Nature of News
   1. Struggle against taxes and duties
   2. Revolutionary War (secondary news)
   3. Accidents, fires, storms, epidemics, and crime
   4. Larger headlines

E. Editorials
   1. Either in the lead or in paragraphs following a news story
   2. Italicized in *New York Journal*

III. Party Press

A. First American newspapers
   1. *Pennsylvania Evening Post* — Benjamin Towne, May 30, 1783
   2. *Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser* — John Dunlap, September 21, 1785
   3. *New York Daily Advertiser* — 1785
   4. Reason for daily newspapers
      a. to provide businessmen with up-to-the minute news of sailing vessels
      b. to provide latest political news and thought

B. *Gazette of the United States*
   1. Federalist newspaper first appearing on April 15, 1789
   2. Published by John Fenno
   3. Received written contributions from Alexander Hamilton and John Adams
   4. Continued until 1818

C. *National Gazette*
   1. Republican (Democrat) newspaper founded October 31, 1791
   2. Published by Philip Freneau
   3. Attacked Hamilton and Adams
   4. Continued until 1793

D. Freedom of the Press
   1. Nine of the 13 state constitutions guaranteed freedom of the press
   2. Freedom guaranteed nationally through the First Amendment of U.S. Constitution

E. Editorials
   1. First appeared in separate column in 1793 in the *American Minerva* published by Noah Webster
   2. In 1800, the *Philadelphia Aurora* used its second page for editorials

F. Contents
   1. European news (two months old)
   2. News from other papers
   3. News of George Washington's death
      a. Washington died on Saturday night, December 14, 1799
      b. First news appeared in the daily *Alexandria* (Virginia) *Times* the following Monday
      c. News appeared in the weekly *Virginia Sentinel* on Wednesday
      d. News appeared in the *Philadelphia Aurora* on Thursday
      e. News reached New York newspapers exactly one week after his death
      f. News reached Boston 11 days after his death

G. Subscription Rates
   1. $6 to $10 a year for dailies
   2. $2 to $3 a year for weeklies
   3. Country papers traded for corn, wheat, linen, sugar, etc.

H. War of 1812 Coverage
   1. Domestic news became more important than foreign news

2. News arrived by mail, through messages from officers to friends at home, by newspapers which received news first
3. James Bradford became first war correspondent by enlisting in Andrew Jackson's army in New Orleans
4. News of Jackson's victory in New Orleans reached New York a month after the event

I. Nature of Newspapers in the early 1800s
1. Four pages, but enlarged to 6 or 7 wide columns
   a. Page 1 — three-fourths advertising; remainder, political essay
   b. Page 2 — foreign and domestic news with letters to the editor
   c. Page 3 — editorial column, local items, and advertising
   d. Page 4 — advertising
2. Headlines more lively than in previous period
   a. "ALMOST INCREDIBLE VICTORY!" — defeat of British in New Orleans
   b. "GLORIOUS TRIUMPH" — Double column
3. *The Star-Spangled Banner* was first published in a Baltimore paper a few hours after Francis Scott Key wrote it

IV. Penny Press

A. Industrial Revolution
1. Mechanical advancements provided cheaper printing methods and larger quantity
2. Population growth caused increase in the number of newspapers
3. Three times as many newspapers in the United States in 1833 as in England or France (larger proportion by 1860)

B. First Penny Newspapers
1. New York *Morning Post* — January 1, 1833, Dr. H. D. Shepard
   a. First appeared at 2 cents, then 1 cent
   b. Lasted only two and one half weeks
2. New York *Sun* — September 3, 1833, Benjamin Day
   a. Four pages, small, three wide columns
   b. Emphasized local, human interest, and sensational events
   c. Popular feature: police-court reports
   d. In August, 1835, the *Sun* published the "moon hoax"
3. New York *Herald* — May 6, 1835, James Gordon Bennett
   a. Contained financial news
   b. Built up a murder trial to great interest
   c. Started society columns
   d. Established a European correspondent, set up a Washington bureau, placed his own correspondents in leading American cities, bought a small fleet of boats to meet ships before they entered New York harbors
   e. Carried crime stories, scandals

C. Other Popular Newspapers
1. New York *Tribune* — April 10, 1841, Horace Greeley
   a. *Weekly Tribune*, started by Greeley in 1841 and distributed throughout U.S., was more successful
   b. Outstanding newspaper staff
   c. Denounced publishing of police reports, advertisements, and news of the theater
   d. Politics
      (1) Fought slavery
      (2) Wanted to improve conditions of the poor and unemployed
      (3) Attacked the slum conditions of New York
      (4) Opposed capital punishment
      (5) Favored prohibition of alcohol
      (6) Advocated westward expansion ("Go west, young man; go west!")
   e. Greeley nominated Abraham Lincoln for the presidency in 1860

f. Greeley ran for the nomination of president in 1872, was humiliated, and died soon after

2. New York *Times* — September 18, 1851, Henry J. Raymond
   a. Four pages, 6 wide columns, contained foreign and local news
   b. *Times* always kept good manners
   c. Wrote accounts of stories in full

D. Changes in News Concepts
   1. Increase of local or hometown news
   2. Great emphasis on sensational news

E. Faster Communication
   1. Steamships
   2. Railroads
   3. Telegraph

F. Associated Press
   1. Started in May, 1848
   2. Six newspapers including the *Sun, Herald, Tribune,* then *Times*

V. Civil War Coverage

A. Thoroughly Covered by Eye-witness Correspondents
   1. New York papers (*Times, Tribune, World*) gave a third of their columns to coverage of the war
   2. Telegraph lines speeded the news from the correspondents to the newspapers
   3. Much rumor in the news; headlines sometimes read:
      a. IMPORTANT— IF TRUE
      b. RUMORS AND SPECULATIONS

B. News Style
   1. Stories printed in full without being summarized
   2. Dispatches were likely to be printed chronologically, the oldest news at the head of the column
   3. Following the story, list of soldiers killed, wounded, and missing, in small type
   4. War maps were used
   5. Eventually, the lead of the story contained most essential elements, with balance of story sent in inverted pyramid style, due to frequent cutting of telegraph cables

C. War Correspondents
   1. Correspondents were known as "specials"
   2. 150 "specials" served northern papers (*Herald* used the most "specials")

D. Censorship
   1. No organized censorship of the news
   2. Confederate generals constantly tried to get northern papers to obtain information
   3. Newspapers regularly printed news of troop movements, war plans, etc.

VI. Yellow Journalism

A. Pre-Yellow Journalism Days
   1. Sunday editions, in 1870s same as dailies
   2. Joseph Pulitzer, upon coming to New York, made the *Sunday World* a 20-page paper
      a. Attractive news stories (some sensationalism)
      b. Stories easy to read and illustrated
      c. As circulation rose, so did the number of pages (to 48)
      d. Morrill Goddard, editor of the *Sunday World,* called the father of the American Sunday paper
      e. Some items were comic drawings, popular songs, sports, society, news for children

B. Inventions and Technological Developments
   1. Telephone – 1875
   2. Typewriter – 1876
   3. Typesetter (Linotype) – 1886
   4. Engraving (half-tone) – 1894

C. Joseph Pulitzer
1. Reporter on *Westliche Post* in St. Louis
2. Entered politics and fought graft
3. Bought St. Louis *Dispatch* in 1878 at a sheriff's sale for $2,500, and combined it with the *Post* three days later; the paper became famous as a leader in crusades
   a. Cleaning and repairing streets
   b. Fighting lotteries
   c. Combatting gambling
   d. Battling tax-dodgers
4. Pulitzer bought the *New York World* in 1882
   a. News policy: colorful, unusual, significant (main), serious (excellent), sometimes sensational
   b. Crusades and stunts: collection of a fund to build the Statue of Liberty pedestal. "Nellie Bly" (Elizabeth Cochran) went to an insane asylum (faking insanity), and wrote an exposé. She later went around the world in 72 days, 6 hours, 11 minutes, and 4 seconds (in contrast to Jules Verne's novel *Around the World in 80 Days*). Pulitzer crusaded against New York Central, Standard Oil Co., Bell Telephone Co. He also provided free ice and coal and staffed 35 doctors to furnish medical service to the needy
   c. Editorial page: this was Pulitzer's favorite page; a spokesman for liberal ideas, he backed Cleveland in 1884
   d. Size: started at 8 pages at 2 cents and grew to 16 pages in a few years
   e. Illustrations: led all other papers, showed scenes of crimes (X marked the spot), many two-column drawings and photos, some larger; one-column photos rare
   f. Promotion: coupons and voting contests

D. William Randolph Hearst
1. Put in charge of his father's (Senator George Hearst) newspaper, the *San Francisco Examiner*, in 1885, remaking it in the image of the *New York World*
2. Bought the *New York Journal* November 7, 1895 for $180,000 cash; paper had once belonged to Albert Pulitzer, Joseph's brother
   a. Hired best journalists at any cost
   b. Used many illustrations, emphasized crime, disaster, scandal reporting
   c. Pulitzer lowered price to 1 cent; Hearst followed
3. Public menace
   a. *World* and *Journal* banned in many families; subscriptions cancelled
   b. More sensational news appeared
4. In 1897, Hearst bought a New York paper to get the Associated Press franchise
5. News coverage
   a. Dedication of Grant's Tomb (in color)
   b. Sports events around the country
   c. Sent Mark Twain to cover the Jubilee Celebration of Queen Victoria
   d. Sent two expeditions to the Klondike, where gold had been discovered
   e. Ran a special train from Washington, D.C., after McKinley's inauguration, with artists drawing while on the train, to beat the other papers with pictures; train broke a speed record
   f. Detective business: a headless, armless, legless body, wrapped in oilcloth, had been found in the river; Hearst built a story each day by reporting the finding of each part of the body

E. Competition Between Hearst's *Journal* and Pulitzer's *World*
1. Heaviest competition through Sunday editions
2. Hearst hired entire staff of the *World*, then the best in the newspaper business; Pulitzer hired them back; Hearst raised his price, and in 24 hours, had rehired them
3. *Sunday World* published an 8-page comic section in color; Hearst began a similar section, advertised as "eight pages of iridescent polychromous effulgence that makes the rainbow look like lead pipe" which outdid the *Sunday World*

F. Richard F. Outcault's drawing, *Yellow Kid*
1. Outcault drew for the *Sunday World*, then for the *Journal*
2. George B. Luks took over the comic panel for the *World*, giving New Yorkers two *Yellow Kids*

3. Term "Yellow Journalism" stems from the yellow color printed on the kid's clothing .

G. Characteristics of Yellow Journalism
1. Scare headlines: excessively large type, in red or black, screaming excitement
2. Lavish use of pictures — some without significance, some faked
3. Fraudulent stories — faked interviews and stories, misleading headlines, pseudo-science
4. Sunday supplement — color comics and sensational articles
5. Sympathy with the underdog — campaigns against abuses suffered by the common people

H. War with Spain
1. Spanish-American War is said to have come about because of the newspaper circulation war between Hearst and Pulitzer
2. Sensational descriptions sent by correspondents to papers in New York of Cubans in concentration camps
3. Lurid pictures of killings of mothers and babies, and imprisonment in filthy and fever-ridden stockades (many of the pictures drawn from rumors)
4. Cuban atrocity stories proved good for high circulation of the *World* and the *Journal*
5. Against Yellow Journalism
a. *New York Times*, Adolph S. Ochs, publisher, 1896–1935
(1) "All the News That's Fit to Print"
(2) "It Does Not Soil the Breakfast Cloth"
(3) News service improved, Sunday supplement, Saturday book review section, Monday financial review
b. *Christian Science Monitor*, 1908, Mary Baker Eddy, publisher
(1) Foreign news, art, music, literature
(2) Stayed away from crime and disaster

I. Pulitzer Policy Change — 1901
1. Emphasized the *World's* responsibility to the public both as a crusader and an accurate reporter
2. Death in 1911
a. Established Pulitzer School of Journalism at Columbia University in New York
b. Established 8 annual Pulitzer Prizes for Journalism, beginning in 1917

VII. Newspaper Chains

A. Hearst: Albany *Times-Union*, Baltimore *News-Post*, Boston *Record-American*, Detroit *Times*, Los Angeles *Examiner*, Los Angeles *Herald-Express*, San Francisco *Examiner*, Milwaukee *Sentinel*, San Antonio *Light*, New York *Journal-American*, Pittsburgh *Sun-Telegraph*, New York *Mirror*, Seattle *Post-Intelligencer*
1. By the end of 1922, Hearst owned 20 dailies and 11 Sunday papers
2. Hearst also owned 6 magazines, Kings Features Syndicate, Hearst Metronome News, motion picture company

B. Scripps-Howard: Fort Worth *Press*, Evansville *Press*, Knoxville *News-Sentinel*, Pittsburgh *Press*, Columbus *Citizen*, El Paso *Herald-Post*, Washington *News*, New York *World-Telegram and Sun*, Albuquerque *Tribune*, Houston *Press*, San Francisco *News-Call-Bulletin*, Indianapolis *Times*, Memphis *Press-Scimitar*, Cincinnati *Post*, Birmingham *Post-Herald*

VIII. Newspaper Press Associations

A. Associated Press Reorganized in 1900
1. Newspapers are members and they share (cooperative)
2. Largest of the associations

B. United Press International
1. Combined in 1957 from United Press (Scripps-Howard) and International News Service (Hearst, 1909)
2. No member newspapers; news sold on contract basis

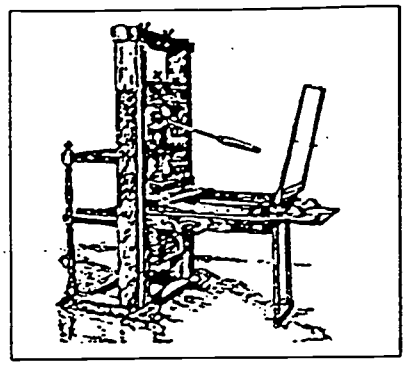
IX. Newspaper Consolidations

A. Advertisers found it cheaper to buy space in one paper than in two

B. Economy of combining a morning and an evening paper
C. High cost of publishing forced many newspapers out (often bought out by larger papers in same city)
D. Because of consolidations, fewer newspapers but higher overall readership (More than 2,200 dailies in 1900; just over 1,700 daily newspapers today); readership has increased because of education and growth in population

X. Television Journalism
A. Many people use television as their primary source of news
1. Faster means of conveying the news
2. Satellites bring news — picture and sound — into the homes from around the world
3. More graphics are used to convey meaning
4. Networks and local stations have increased news coverage
5. Cable News Network and others have 24-hour news available
B. Newspapers have become more graphic; more colorful, more complete in coverage in order to compete effectively

XI. Desktop Publishing
A. Development of Personal Computers put keyboard and monitor on every desktop
1. Reporters could enter type directly into a central storage unit
2. Designers could plan pages electronically
3. Rise of software, lower prices made stand-alone units attractive
4. Non-journalists were able to prepare newsletters, etc.
5. Professionals, students learned to assume a greater role in production
B. Development of laser printers improved quality of computer output
1. No need to accept dot-matrix reproduction
2. DPI increases from 300 to 600 to 120 to 2400 eliminates need for professional output
C. Improvements in scanners, photocopiers
D. Increased use of modems, on-line resources



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American Newspapers Encourage Colonists Against British Rule

(1776)—At the start of this century, citizens of these colonies relied on town criers and British-run newspapers to provide them with the news. Now, many colonists are starting to publish their own newspapers and this new freedom is uniting the anti-British movement.

It all started on September 25, 1690 when Benjamin Harris published *Publik Occurrences, Both Forreign and Domestick.* This four-page, 6" x 10 1/4" paper was banned after the first issue by the British Governor, but it demonstrated that there was interest in the formation of an American newspaper. Fourteen years later, on April 24, 1704, John Campbell began printing the *Boston News-Letter,* the first regularly published newspaper in the colonies, and the only locally-produced paper for 15 years. It was "published by authority," meaning that it had the approval of the government.

By 1721, an independent newspaper, the *New England Courant,* became the first American paper to provide readers with what they wanted, rather than with information controlled by the authorities. It offered both a more pleasing appearance and a higher literary style, including humor and personality sketches as well as editorial commentary. Its editor was James Franklin, brother of the better-known Benjamin Franklin. This paper reprinted many of the highly-acclaimed *Spectator* and *Guardian* essays from England.

After 1725, newspapers were printed throughout the colonies. Although many lasted only a few years, they provided the public with the chance to be informed about the events of the day, as well as to read the opinions of various political figures. In this way, newspapers helped to educate the colonists in addition to stirring them to action over a series of governmental injustices imposed by the British.

Maryland Gazette Publisher Early Advocate of Responsible Journalism

(1775)–Anne Catharine Green, publisher of the *Maryland Gazette* for nine years, died early this year. The only woman to publish a newspaper in these colonies, Green was an early advocate of responsible reporting.

Following the death of her husband, Jonas Green, in 1767, Anne Green was given the position of public printer by the General Assembly of the Colony of Maryland. Jonas Green originally worked for Benjamin Franklin, of the *Pennsylvania Gazette,* before moving to Annapolis with his young bride. There he took the position of public printer for the colony. In 1767 he died, leaving the entire business and several unfilled contracts to his wife. Anne fulfilled the contracts and continued to publish the weekly paper, for which a grateful General Assembly granted her the position of public printer, her husband's office, at the same salary he had received: 36,109 pounds of tobacco annually, and 48,000 pounds for years when the delegates were in session.

During the recent disputes with the British Government, Mrs. Green made an unpopular decision, suspending publication of anonymous personal attacks and reckless accusations. Her stated policy was, "Pieces brought for the Press free from personal abuse, and otherwise instructive or entertaining, are gratefully acknowledged; but whenever they shall exceed the Boundaries of Delicacy, or be replete with personal invective, the Author must expect to offer his Name."

Despite considerable protest, she continued to provide balanced reporting of events, including the proceedings of the First Continental Congress and the burning of the *Peggy Stewart* last year, and the Boston Tea Party, until her recent death.

Zenger Trial Re-defines Concepts of Libel and Freedom of the Press

(1766)—The right of freedom of the press was established by a 1735 New York court case in which John Peter Zenger, publisher of the *New York Weekly Journal,* was charged with "raising sedition"— a libelous act— by his criticism of the royal governor and his administration. Under existing British law, if it could be shown that a person had committed the deed with which he was charged, then he was guilty. Zenger's attorney, Andrew Hamilton, argued, however, that "the words themselves must be libelous— that is, *False, Malicious, and Seditious*— or else we are not guilty."

The jury ruled that Zenger had printed the truth and that the truth was not libelous, and cleared Zenger of the charges brought against him. Even so, it would be nearly 50 years before the colonial courts commonly accepted truth as a defense and the right of a jury to decide both the law and the facts in a case.

Last year, when Britain imposed the Stamp Act, which was a tax on paper, among other items, each of the 30 American newspapers being published at the time was required to sell a stamp along with the newspaper. The effect was to alienate editors as well as the colonists. Newspapers continued to publish; however, many refused to collect the tax, thus fueling the rebellious attitude toward the British.

Although the Stamp Act was repealed this year, newspapers are still critical of many British government policies.

First News Service Opens with Samuel Adams' Committees

(1774)— Samuel Adams, editor of the *Independent Advertiser* beginning in 1748, and later a regular contributor to the *Boston Gazette and Country Journal,* has organized a group of agents into Committees of Correspondence in order to keep the radical patriot movement informed of events throughout the colonies, especially in Boston and New York.

These agents "cover" every important meeting and report the news to Adams' local committee, which processes the information for dissemination as needed. This primitive news service has proved highly efficient at keeping track of the British militia as well as governmental decisions. Assisting with dissemination has been the Sons of Liberty propaganda network, which supplied the *Journal of Occurrences* of 1768 and 1769, consisting of a record of alleged events involving British troops and government actions.

Another influential New England printer is Isaiah Thomas, editor of the *Massachusetts Spy* of Boston, whose stated purpose is a paper for "mechanics (workmen), and other classes of people who had not much time to spare from business" who would value a newspaper that could be "read at a leisure moment."

One of the most common forms of printed communication during this time was the *broadside,* printed on one side of the sheet only, carrying current news or announcements, and intended for immediate distribution at low cost. Passed from hand to hand and tacked on public doors, these "extra" newspapers give an immediacy to news that increases their importance to the colonists.

'Common Sense' Makes Sense; Quickly Popular with Colonists

(1776)— A pamphlet re-printed by many colonial newspapers was first published in January by Tom Paine, who emigrated from England scarcely one year before. His arguments were simple and grounded in basic logic, making them easy to understand and accept. Yet they were also eloquent and stimulating, for they reflected the thinking of many colonists, both the Patriots and the more conservative Whigs.

It is interesting that a significant number of the ideas expressed in *Common Sense* were incorporated into the Declaration of Independence, written and signed just six months later.

Sedition Trials Help Establish Truth as Defense

(1812)— Adoption of the Constitution and its Bill of Rights provided newspaper publishers with freedoms not previously enjoyed. Yet within a few years the division of thinking between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists (later called Republicans) had resulted in such invective and diatribe on both sides that in 1798 Congress passed the Alien and Sedition Acts. The first was a law intended to rid the country of troublesome "foreigners;" the second was designed to silence irritating editors.

The President was empowered to deport aliens thought to be subversive. Although John Adams did not exercise this power, it was an obvious threat to some of the opposition editors who were not citizens.

The Sedition Act made it a crime to "write, print, utter, or publish ... any false, scandalous and malicious writing" against the government, Congress, or President, or to "excite against them the hatred of the good people of the United States" or to "resist or oppose, or defeat any such law." Although the law did not forbid criticism of the government, attempting only to curb malicious and false statements which defamed public officials, and although it did provide that truth could be offered as a defense, it was opposed by moderate men of both political viewpoints.

The vindictiveness of the Federalists in prosecuting their enemies helped to defeat them in the elections of 1800, The laws expired March 3, 1801, and newly-elected President Jefferson, an Anti-Federalist, promptly pardoned all in jail and cancelled remaining trials.

Yet a few cases continued to be prosecuted under state laws. The most celebrated press trial during this period involved Harry Croswell, editor of a New York Federalist paper, *The Wasp,* which was so vicious and annoying that even other Federalists disclaimed it. He was indicted and found guilty in 1804, but appealed the case. At the appeals trial, Alexander Hamilton, Jefferson's rival, argued for the defense. He insisted that the press had the right to "publish with impunity truth, with good motives, for justifiable ends," even though such information reflected on the government or individuals. Essentially, Hamilton was arguing for the right of submitting truth as a full defense.

Although Hamilton did not win the case, the significance of his arguments was not lost. Even before the verdict was handed down, a bill had been introduced into the state legislature guaranteeing those rights, and other states soon followed suit. In the session just closed, the Supreme Court held that the federal government could not prosecute under the old concept of seditious libel, thus acknowledging the right of truth as a defense, and the right of the jury to determine it.

Penny Press Brings News to 'Common People'

(1835)— With the appearance of the *New York Sun* on September 3, 1833, a new concept in newspapers was begun. This four-page paper, which features sensational news rather than erudite opinions, sells on the streets for a penny a copy, rather than by advance annual subscription. Thus, almost anyone can buy it, and both laborers and advertisers find it appealing. Within six months, it has reached a circulation of 8000, nearly twice that of its nearest rival. It contains a full page of advertising in addition to half a page of classifieds (including "Want Ads").

This new type of journalism has caught the fancy of people of all spectrums, including the politicians, who see it as meeting the needs of mass democracy, a growing market place ideology, and an urban society. With the papers' emphasis on emotional reporting of news events, the common people find themselves involved with the issues of the day. However, just as Jacksonian politics sometimes encourages excesses, some of these papers are willing to compromise the truth for sensationalism, if that will increase sales.

The *Sun,* founded by Benjamin H. Day, was quickly imitated in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boston, as well as in New York itself, with James Gordon Bennett's *New York Morning Herald* in June, 1835.

The *Herald,* however, would not remain an imitator for long. By 1836, its price was two cents per copy (claiming readers were getting more for their money than they could get elsewhere). It also pioneered in developing news and reducing views. During the years, it acquired a more serious profile, and was an innovator or perfecter of financial sections, critical reviews, society sections, letters columns, and sports coverage. The *Herald* became known for aggressive news coverage; and by 1860 it would be the world's largest daily, at 77,000.

Rise of Dailies Spreads News Westward

(1824)— Almost simultaneously with the establishment of the Constitution, major commercial centers began to see daily publication of newspapers. Most of these were weekly publications that had converted to semi-weekly, tri-weekly, and then daily publication, such as the *Pennsylvania Packet and Daily Advertiser* of Philadelphia, which switched to daily status in 1784.

Although the price of most early papers was too high for the average citizen to afford, and circulation was low, by 1800 the pressure from common people for political recognition helped to establish new papers with a more liberal editorial outlook and pages containing more sympathetic political information and opinion.

The first "western" newspaper was the *Pittsburgh Gazette,* established in 1786, and the following year the *Kentucky Gazette* was established at Lexington. Much of the news of these "frontier papers" was carried as "exchanges" from papers farther east, although contracts for legal and government printing often kept the pages full.

But one of the most important developments of this period was in government reporting. Reporters have had access to the House of Representatives since April 8, 1789, two days after it was established. They gained access to the Senate on January 2, 1802.

One of the most objective papers of the time was established in Washington soon after the city was established, at the encouragement of President Jefferson. Samuel Harrison Smith began the *National Intelligencer,* reporting on both the House and Senate. When Smith turned the paper over to others in 1810, it switched from tri-weekly to daily, and provided complete, accurate reports of floor debates, serving as the semiofficial recorder of Congress until 1834.

Two NY Papers Set High Standards

(1851)— The *New York Tribune* published its first issue on April 10, 1841, and the *New York Times* on September 18 of this year. Both papers first sold for one cent a copy. They have quickly become leaders in the field.

The *Tribune* was founded by Horace Greeley, one of the most influential editors of the Nineteenth Century. By politics, he is conservative, yet he champions the causes of democracy as they could be applied to the common man. Throughout his long career as editor of the *Tribune,* Greeley has frequently advocated a position which alienated one or another segment of his public, yet he continued to enjoy one of the most loyal sets of readers in the history of American journalism.

Despite his sometimes erratic attitudes, Greeley is conscious of his responsibility to the reader, and the public senses his sincerity. He is intent on producing a better world— and a better press. Thus, despite the criticism, Greeley is read by all types of people, and employs and encourages many of the best young writers of the period. Thereby he has changed the press of the masses from sensationalism to one of culture, ideals, and stimulating ideas.

The *Times* was founded by Henry J. Raymond, who had been Greeley's chief assistant in 1841, but whose personality was so different that the two could never be friends. From the beginning, Raymond has sought ways to attack Greeley, avoiding not only the sensationalism of many other papers, but also the whimsy which he feels characterizes the *Tribune*. The *Times* has quickly established a reputation as a reasonable and objective paper, solid even though aggressive. It substituted accuracy for wishful thinking, developing the technique of careful reporting based upon decency and fairness, and soon outsold even the *Tribune* within the city limits.

The *Tribune's* weekly edition, however, claims the largest circulation of any paper in the nation, at more than 200,000 copies each week.

New Process Brings Public First Views of Civil War

(1865)— Mathew Brady, the prominent New York and Washington portrait photographer and author of the landmark 1850 book, *Gallery of Illustrious Americans,* has assembled more than 3500 glass-plate photographs of the Civil War.

Brady studied photography under Samuel F. B. Morse, famed as the inventor of the telegraph, but also well known as an artist and investigator of the science of optics. By 1842, Brady had set up a shop in Washington, and by 1855 he owned illustrious studios in both cities.

When the war began, Brady anticipated the public's need to see the battlefields where the horrors of war occurred. He equipped several wagons as portable darkrooms and hired young men to operate the cameras and develop the bulky 8" x 10" glass plates on the spot. Having already photographed President Lincoln on several occasions, Brady persuaded him to permit a photographic record of the war. They were permitted to go anywhere and were frequently present when the fighting started.

Although Brady did not personally operate many of the cameras, the entire project was his enterprise, and he takes credit for the work. He hired a staff of 20 "operators," whom he supervised. Alexander Gardner, Timothy O'Sullivan and George Barnard all quit in 1863 because Brady refused to give them public credit for their work. (They would go on to become some of the best-known photographers of the century.)

Brady, with the glass plates vividly recording the hysteria, horror and occasional glory of the war, and a few early prints for exhibit, may find public interest quickly declining. The government shows no interest in acquiring them. Brady has invested $100,000 in obtaining these pictures, but the government is slow in providing him the promised remuneration.

Despite his pioneering efforts at documenting the war, Brady was bankrupted by the panic of 1873, his business taken over by creditors and rivals, and he did not even know where his pictures were stored. He died impoverished in 1896.

Scholastic Journalism Gazette

These articles are intended to provide students with an understanding of how the press has helped to develop and has been the beneficiary of many of the freedoms all Americans enjoy. It can also be used in its straight historical context as the evolution of technology, or in a more philosophical way as the evolution of ideas and concepts (*i.e.,* views *vs.* news, advocacy *vs.* propaganda, objectivity *vs.* yellow journalism, and responsibility to one's readers).

JEA freely gives permission to reprodnce this paper for use in your classes or in promoting Scholastic Jonrnalism Week.

Facts and related data for this paper were drawn from the book *The Press and America,* fifth edition, by Edwin Emery and Michael Emery. Information regarding Anne Catharine Green came from *Smithsonian* magazine. Information regarding Nellie Bly came from the book *Nellie Bly: Daredevil, Reporter, Feminist,* by Brooke Kroeger.

compiled by James Shuman (Modesto, CA)

'Yellow Journalist' Crusades for Change through Prizes

(1901)— Joseph Pulitzer, owner of the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* and the *New York World,* has long been an advocate of independence, criticizing governmental wrongdoing, opposing fraud, advocating principles and ideas rather than prejudices and partisanship, and always upholding the truth. He founded the *Post-Dispatch* in 1878 by merging two papers and boldly advancing his policies. Within four years it was the leading evening area paper.

Although his policies have resulted in determined crusades in the public interest, they have also had a reputation for exploiting stories of murder, sex, and sin, and for sensationalizing accounts of violence. There have been exaggeration, half-truth, and humor at the expense of embarrassed citizens.

Pulitzer bought the *New York World* in 1883 and quickly attracted attention by following the same formula he had used in St. Louis. But mixed in with the sensationalism and crusades and self-promotion was good news coverage and a solid editorial policy. He pushed harder for the poor and helpless, and attempted to shock authorities into concern and action through news and editorial coverage. Throughout the 1880s, even though the number of pages increased the price to the public remained at two cents due to increases in advertising and ad rates.

In the fall of 1895, William Randolph Hearst, owner of the *San Francisco Examiner,* bought the *New York Journal* and immediately hired away the best editorial talent from the *World.* One of the first to be "bought" was a cartoonist for the Sunday supplement, who had been drawing a series featuring a boy in a yellow nightshirt. Pulitzer's *World* continued to run the cartoon, drawn by another artist, and so, briefly, there were two "versions" appearing each Sunday. The public had already nicknamed him the "Yellow Kid," and so the style of these two papers came to be called Yellow Journalism. They both campaigned vigorously against Spain from 1895 until April, 1898, when war was declared. Yet the *Journal* cared less for the truth or the facts than for the sensational nature of the story, even apparently "manufacturing" news when little or none existed.

This year, the *World* committed itself to a new policy in which it still crusaded for the oppressed, but not at the expense of the truth. Pulitzer, who by this time has become completely blind, considered the public's need for "the whole truth" most important and emphasized the paper's responsibility to its readers both as a crusader and an accurate reporter.

It would not be known until after his death in 1911 how deep his regard for journalistic accuracy had been. In his will, he established the Pulitzer School of Journalism at Columbia University in New York, and also endowed a perpetual gift for eight annual prizes in journalism, which were to be awarded annually beginning in 1917.

'Around the World' Stunt Reporter Remembered Best for Personalized Investigative News Style

(January 27, 1922)— "The best reporter in America" died this morning after a brief illness, reported the *New York Evening Journal.* Nellie Bly had been a newspaperwoman for 37 years, largely pioneering an investigative style that was often called "stunt journalism."

At a time when few women were accepted anywhere in journalism, and then only on the "women's pages," she and her female colleagues demonstrated resourcefulness, daring, and a clear grasp of what the public wanted to read in a never-ending variety of sensational exposés and first-person accounts of oppression. Yet Nellie was able to transcend the merely mawkish to become the best-known woman in American journalism.

Nellie Bly was her "pen name," a common practice of the time. She was christened Elizabeth Cochran. Her father died when she was a child, and her family was plunged from wealth to near-poverty. Throughout life, she had compassion and a strong social conscience, combined with courage and strong self-confidence.

She wrote first for the Pittsburg *Dispatch,* where she acquired her pen name. After three years, she went to New York City, where she gained a position with the *World,* then published by Joseph Pulitzer. She received a daring assignment: have herself committed to a notorious lunatic asylum to expose its horrors. The sensation which followed publication of her series of reports assured her not only a job, but a front-page byline at a time when most stories were uncredited.

Bly is perhaps most often remembered for her widely-publicized attempt in 1889 to "beat the record" of traveling around the world in 80 days, set by Jules Verne's fictional hero Phileas Fogg, which she did, in 72 days.

But she also excelled at a more "solid" type of reporting, providing provocative, often sympathetic interviews with great figures of the day, including Susan B. Anthony, Emma Goldman, Eugene V. Debs, Illinois Governor John P. Atgeld, John L. Sullivan, Jack Dempsey; or exposing to the public the plight of the poor and the needs of the helpless, often victimized by crooked politicians, wealthy businessmen, or scam artists. Many consider that some of her finest reporting came during the Pullman strike of 1894 and the National Woman Suffrage Convention in 1896.

Two of her closest professional friendships were formed early in her career: Erasmus Wilson, the "Quiet Observer" of the Pittsburg *Dispatch,* who had helped her get a start in newspapering, and Arthur Brisbane, a colleague when she first came to the *World,* who became one of the most significant figures in American journalism, serving as managing editor of *The New York Journal* for many years, and who wrote the editorial on her death.

In 1895 she married Robert L. Seaman, a 70-year-old wealthy bachelor. From November 1899 she ran her husband's business, implementing many model innovations to benefit the 1500 employees. By mid-1910, the business faced serious financial difficulty. During several years of legal wrangling, evidence indicated that at least four employees had embezzled $1,680,000, much of it in the form of forged checks. Creditors foreclosed. She fought in court for three years, with only limited success.

Bly planned a three-week vacation in Vienna, leaving New York August 1, 1914. But she did not arrive at her destination until August 22, just as WW I was breaking out everywhere, and ended up staying in Europe for four and a half years. Through previous friendships she was able to secure approval to tour the front lines, thus becoming the first female war correspondent. She sent her first cable on October 26, and followed up with numerous others, describing the horrors that both soldiers and civilians endured.

Her final three years of reporting for *The Evening Journal* evolved into a loosely-structured advice column, beginning on August 25, 1919 with a column entitled "Am I my brother's keeper?" (her conclusion: yes) and a clearing-house for assistance of various kinds, especially placing orphans and abandoned children for private adoption.

Ochs Leads Shift to Fact-Based Reporting

(1921)–By 1896 the *New York Times* was a dying newspaper. After the death of founder Henry Raymond in 1869, the *Times* endured more-or-less successfully under a series of leaders for 25 years. By the early 1890s the giant was ailing. A paid circulation of 9,000 was disguised behind a press run of 21,000, but the *Times* lagged far behind other morning dailies. In 1896 Adolph S. Ochs, of the *Chattanooga Times,* made a deal with then-owner Charles R. Miller to buy the paper.

Ochs was born in Cincinnati in 1858, and at the age of 11 began working for the *Knoxville Chronicle* as a carrier boy. He worked his way up, serving as a printer's devil for the *Chronicle* at age 14 before moving to the *Louisville Courier-Journal.* He reached the rank of assistant composition room foreman by 1875, then moved to the *Knoxville Tribune* as a typesetter. In 1876 he helped found the *Chattanooga Dispatch,* which faltered after a few months, but Ochs was committed to building a successful paper there.

Securing a loan, in 1878 he bought the *Chattanooga Times* for $250.00. He promised to provide all the local news, the latest telegraph news, and all available commercial news. He built a network of correspondents in the South, bought new presses, published a weekly edition, a trade journal for southern industrialists, an agricultural journal, and a religious newspaper. His editorials called for nonpartisan city government, civic improvements, schools, and a University. When the *Times* hit financial trouble in 1892, Ochs bought the *New York Times* in 1896 to generate new funds.

Ochs lacked the capital for an outright purchase, so he arranged a deal which would give him control of the paper in four years if he could turn it around. His experience with the *Chattanooga Times* served him well in the reorganization of the *Times.* Here he promised all the news with the greatest possible speed; impartial coverage; and a forum for consideration of all questions of public importance. He chose as his motto "All the news that's fit to print."

Typography and mechanics were improved, and new coverage was added. He printed a list of out-of-town buyers in the city, a daily listing of real estate transactions, daily and weekly stock reports, court records and cases, book reviews, letters to the editor, and editorials. Ad linage passed the *Tribune* the first year, and the *Times* was the first major paper to use telephone solicitations. In 1898, with circulation at 25,000, Ochs took the rad-ical step of cutting prices to raise circulation. Daily issues dropped from 3¢ to 1¢, and by 1899 circulation had risen to 75,000; by 1901 it had topped 100,000. Ad sales doubled in two years, and Ochs gained control under the terms of his agreement.

Ochs' commitment to excellence continued, with construction of the $2.5 million Times Building in 1904 and the introduction of the wireless telegraph in 1907. He later added the moving electronic news bulletins to the Times Building, helping make the paper a New York institution. His managing editor, Carr Van Anda, built a world wide network of correspondents, and their coverage of World War I helped to catapult the *Times* to major stature. During the war, the *Times* printed the text of government documents and speeches, making it the leading reference newspaper for librarians, scholars and government officials. This war reporting climaxed with the publication of the text of the Versailles Treaty. Today, circulation has risen to 330,000 daily and more than 500,000 for Sundays, and advertising linage has increased tenfold.

Breakthrough in Technology Provides Faster Presses, Improved Type, and Photographs

(1910)— With the installation of Ottmar Mergenthaler's Linotype machine in the *New York Tribune* plant in 1886, the large evening dailies could cover more news close to deadline time. The ability to set entire lines of type in a single re-usable lead slug brought many other improvements and totally revolutionized the printing world. Slugcasting machines could produce an entire line of type nearly as fast as a typist could type, creating a demand for more dependable, easier-to-read typefaces. Among these were the graceful Cheltenham and Bodoni families, both appearing soon after 1900.

The leading manufacturer of printing presses, R. Hoe & Company, had converted many of the larger presses from hand to steam power early in the nineteenth century, and from flatbed to rotary before the Civil War. Advances included curved stereotype plates, continuous rolls of newsprint, printing on both sides of the paper in one operation, automated folders, and color printing.

By the late 1890s, most of the large presses had shifted to the use of stereotyped plates and webs, enabling them to print up to 48,000 twelve-page papers in an hour. A full-color press was installed at the *New York World* in 1893.

Editors had long searched for better ways to include illustrations in their publications, and by the 1870s had settled on Zincographs, etchings produced by an artist, based upon a photograph. Still, numerous editors hoped for a way to utilize photographs directly. Frederic E. Ives, head of the photographic laboratory at Cornell University in the late 1870s, developed a way to break up masses of dark and [illegible] t by changing everything to a series of dots placed at varying distances apart, which he called the halftone photoengraving process.

Although the first successful halftone in the U.S. was published in 1880, it was not until 1897 that Ives had perfected the method sufficiently for printing in the *New York Tribune.* Very quickly, the other large papers were also running halftone reproductions of photographs.

Photography develops as journalistic effort

(1912)— The science of photography was developed during the 1820s and 30s by Joseph Niépce and Louis Daguerre. With the public release of the formula by the French government on August 19, 1839, artist/scientists in both Europe and the U.S. began to explore its possibilities.

One of the first to see its journalistic uses was Mathew Brady. Other early pioneers were Eadweard Muybridge and John D. Isaacs, who in 1877 used 24 cameras to demonstrate the gait of a galloping horse. Yet it was an awkward, clumsy kind of art, using various liquid chemicals and glass plates for negatives.

Thus, when George Eastman announced the Kodak camera in 1888, using a flexible roll of dry film, another innovation occurred. Within ten years, halftone reproductions of photographs were being included in many of the major newspapers, and by the early part of this century, photographers were a part of every daily newspaper staff. The shift from art and science to journalism was unusually rapid and rewarding.

Rise of Tabloids Brings Era of 'Jazz Journalism' to American Press

(1933)— With the close of World War I, a new cycle of journalistic sensationalism began. Similar to the penny press of the 1830s and the new journalism of the 1890s, this wave of sensationalism found the right conditions and an untapped audience ready for such an appeal.

Like the earlier periods, this wave of sensationalism affected all of the press before it subsided, and resulted in a more substantial form of journalism once it was over. However, this era was accompanied by the use of two techniques that identify the period: a tabloid-style format and extensive use of photography.

The 1920s have become known as the decade of Jazz Journalism, and subsequent years have seen a marked increase of emphasis on the techniques of interpretive reporting.

Although small-sized newspapers had been common throughout much of the eighteenth and ninetheenth centuries, the tabloids of this era owe their size and style to England. In 1903 Alfred C. Harmsworth began the *Daily Mirror* as a newspaper for women, but soon converted it into a "half-penny illustrated." By 1909, its circulation had reached a million copies, other British newspapers jumped into the field.

In New York, the *Illustrated Daily News* began publishing on June 26, 1919. Within a few months, it became the *New York Daily News*, but it struggled for several more months before editor Joseph Medill Patterson found his circulation niche with the immigrant and poorly-educated citizens, who appreciated the heavy emphasis on large photographs and brief, sensationalized stories.

By 1921 the *Daily News* became second in circulation to Hearst's *Evening Journal*, and in 1924 the *News* became America's most widely circulated newspaper. That year brought heavy competition in the form of Hearst's *Mirror*, and a new paper begun by Bernarr Macfadden, the *Daily Graphic*. It was the *Graphic* which set out to see just how sensational and lurid it could be, resulting in an battle that has been characterized as "gutter journalism."

The climax of the war of the tabloids was 1926–1928. Not content with reporting such scandalous events as nude dancing girls in a bathtub of champagne, or the antics of a wealthy real-estate man and his 15-year-old bride, editors dug up unresolved murders and pushed for trials. Although one ended in acquittal and a suit for libel, another ended with a woman sentenced to execution in the electric chair at Sing Sing.

Although the *Graphic* covered her last thoughts before execution, it was the *News* that had the last word, by ignoring the prohibition on photography and sending in a photographer with a tiny camera strapped to his ankle to take a picture just after the current was turned on. the resulting touched-up full-page shot sold an extra 250,000 papers!

Broadcasting Established as Additional News Service

(1944)— From the successful broadcast of Enrico Caruso's tenor voice from the Metropolitan Opera stage in 1910 to March 1, 1920, the growing field of "radiotelegraphy" was carefully controlled by the government.

Broadcasting, of course, could not be successful unless there were ways to *receive* the transmissions. Fortunately for the radio experimenters, a rapidly-growing core of amateur enthusiasts had built their own crystal sets to pick up the broadcasts on their headphones.

Congress had enacted a law in 1912 directing the Department of Commerce to issue licenses to private broadcasters and assign wave lengths for commercial operators. On November 2, 1920, Westinghouse station KDKA in Pittsburgh began regular broadcasting, and in October, 1921, the *Detroit News* began broadcasting from station WWJ. Soon newspapers in many other major cities established their own stations. General Electric set up WGY in Schenectady, New York, and ATT built WEAF (now WNBC) in New York City.

Almost immediately, it was apparent that radio could become a paying proposition. The number of stations increased from 30 in 1922 to 556 in 1923; the number of receiving sets jumped from some 50,000 in 1921 to more than 600,000 in 1922. The three corporations established a consortium called Radio Corporation of America. In 1926, ATT sold its station, and the other partners established the National Broadcasting Company as an RCA subsidiary, which had phenomenal growth, forming nation-wide networks in 1927. In 1930, an antitrust action forced them to dispose of their holdings in RCA.

But by then a rival company, the Columbia Broadcasting System, was also well established. In 1934, NBC had 127 affiliated stations and CBS had 97, and a third network had been formed. In fact, growth was so rapid that the 1912 law was no longer sufficient to control the chaos of the airwaves. The Radio Act of 1927 had attempted to regulate all forms of radio communication. and did succeed in establishing some order. Federal authority was broadened in 1934 with the establishment of the Federal Communications Commission, which took over jurisdiction over all telecommunications.

Although newspapers had assisted the development of commercial transmission stations, by 1928 the newspapers were becoming increasingly opposed to sharing news and information with them, and in 1932 the ANPA formally voted not to furnish news to radio networks. The radio industry attempted to gather the news itself, but found the collection of news expensive and attempted several alternatives, including the Press-Radio Bureau. By 1935, the wire service networks began preparing reports especially for radio clients, and by 1970 the UPI and AP each served some 3,200 radio and TV stations.

It was the start of World War II that brought news broadcasting to maturity. CBS covered the 20-day Munich crisis in September with live broadcasts from 14 European cities, including Vienna, Berlin, Paris, Rome, and London. Americans heard the voices of major politicians firsthand, with 471 separate broadcasts totaling nearly 48 hours of air time. NBC and Mutual provided similar coverage. To illustrate how fully radio news had come of age, NBC had devoted 2.8 percent of total program hours to news in 1937, but in 1944 it was 26.4 percent.

'Funny Papers' Continue to Charm Readers

(1939)— Humorous-panel artists proliferated after Richard F. Outcault's "Yellow Kid" in 1896. Rudolph Dirks' "Katzenjammer Kids" was the longest-lived of all American comics, running from 1897 to 1980, but many others were also originated in the early days and are still remembered affectionately.

These comic strips were designed for the Sunday papers, and began to appear in color as early as the late 1890s. Arising as major competitors in the comic-strip business by the end of World War I were the Hearst-owned King Features Syndicate and the United Features combine. Included are "Bringing Up Father," 1912; "Barney Google," 1919; "Gasoline Alley," 1919; Olive Oyl and Popeye, 1919; "Moon Mullins," 1923; Rube Goldberg's "Boob McNutt," 1924; "Little Orphan Annie," 1924; and "Blondie," 1930.

The continuing story strip was first introduced with "Andy Gump" in 1917, and was developed into the action story with "Tarzan" in 1929, "Dick Tracy" and "Joe Palooka" in 1931, and "Terry and the Pirates" in 1934. "Buck Rogers" began in 1929 and "Superman" in 1939.

Scholastic journalism WEEK

FROM THE JOURNALISM EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

February 22-28, 1998

Suggested Classroom Activities

The Journalism Education Association has scheduled February 22 - 28, 1998 as Scholastic Journalism Week. How you help promote this week is entirely up to you. It is hoped that through your classroom activities, your students will view this week as an event holding major significance for them.

The following suggestions are intended to give you some ideas from which to start. Please feel free to use and/or modify any of them to fit your needs.

1. Benjamin Franklin. Probably the best known of the colonial "printers," Franklin is easy for younger students to study and his writing style is easy to emulate. They might try writing a Silence Dogood type of article or prepare their own *Poor Richard's Almanac*. They might speculate on what it must have been like to be the postmaster of all the colonies, and how this related to journalism at the time.

2. Sam Adams. Students might discuss what it means to be a "radical" and whether they feel the use of propaganda is justifiable. They might read through some Revolutionary War-era writing for examples of emotional/inflammatory/propagandistic writing and identify the words and phrases which they feel would have been controversial.

3. Peter Zenger. Students might discuss the concept of libel *vs.* truth and why the Zenger trial and its outcome are important today. They should read through a detailed account of the trial, especially Andrew Hamilton's defense.

4. News *vs.* Views. Students might discuss the difference between fact and opinion, and between objectivity and biased coverage. They should compare various major newspapers of the Nineteenth Century in an effort to understand the differences in coverage among them. They might also compare current papers to see how they differ in "selectively" reporting political issues.

5. Yellow Journalism. Students should examine the history of the Pulitzer and Hearst newspapers, centering on the period from 1895 to 1905, in an effort to understand this phenomenon. They should discuss the questions: How "selective" can a reporter be in using the facts of a case? How sensational can a human interest story be without becoming yellow journalism? Why was this period of journalism important to the development of the "Muck-Raking" of famous authors from 1906 to 1915? (They should be familiar with *The Jungle* by Upton Sinclair.)

6. Emotionalism. Students might examine Sam Adams' *Journal of Occurrences* along with the Penny Press of the 1830s, Yellow Journalism of the 1890s, Jazz Journalism of the 1920s and 30s, and some of the "super-market tabloids" of today. What similarities do they see in the interests of people who support this kind of writing? Will the "enquiring minds" of the 1990s be "educated" to "better" literature in the future as were those of the earlier periods?

7. Stunt Journalism. The kinds of activities reporters engaged in to get such stories as the "Madhouse

Exposé" and "Around the World" race came to be called "stunt journalism." In many cases, it was the only way a woman reporter could get a job. She would be asked to disguise herself in order to gain entry into some establishment, and then write about it afterward. Students might discuss ways in which such "stunts" and methods of investigation differ from today's practices, and why.

8. Coverage Comparison. Students might compare coverage of the Civil War with that of Vietnam and Desert Storm. Emphasis could be placed on photography or reporting, or both. Show them some of Brady's Civil War photos, and then some of the most memorable from the two more recent wars. Ask them to speculate on why the public refused to accept Brady's photographs. In what ways were some of the photos of Vietnam instrumental in turning public opinion against US involvement? Why was Desert Storm, when everyone in the US was glued to the TV screen for three days, so different—or was it? How has reporting changed in the last 100± years? Where do the reporters get most of their information? Why are war reporters called "correspondents"?

9. Women in Journalism. Students might trace the course of women's involvement in journalism from colonial days to the present time, using the Anne Catharine Green story as a basis (there were 17 known colonial women printers!), but also including the Nellie Blye story. As with other aspects of journalism, women's involvement appears to have been somewhat cyclical. What might some of the reasons for this be? Is there really such a thing as a "women's press"? If so, how does it differ from the "regular press"? What about gossip columnists? What about the society page?
Mid-to late 19th century newspaperwomen include: Jane Cunningham Croly (Jennie June), Fanny Fern, Margaret Fuller, Middy Morgan, Jane Grey Swisshelm. Turn of the Century women include: Elizabeth Bisland, Winifred Black (Annie Laurie), Bessie Bramble, Margherita Arlina Hamm, Eliza D Kieth (Di Vernon), Nell Nelson, Ada Patterson, Julie Hayes Percy, Ella Wheeler Wilcox. Students may also want to learn more about the first "advice to the lovelorn" columnist, Dorothy Dix, whose column appeared in the *Journal* from 1901 to 1917.

10. Nellie Bly. Students may want to find out more about the most famous woman reporter of the turn of the century, whose combination of personal courage and consideration for the oppressed strikes sympathetic sparks yet today. Several recent biographies are available. They include: *Nellie Bly: Daredevil, Reporter, Feminist,* Brooke Kroeger, 1994 (adult level); *Making Headlines: a Biography of Nellie Bly,* Kathy Lyn Emerson, 1989 (upper elementary level); *Nellie Bly,* Elizabeth Ehrlich, 1989, (middle school level); *Getting the Real Story, Nellie Bly and Ida B. Wells,* Sue Davidson, 1992. There are also many other older books available.
Students might also want to find modern-day parallels among reporters and columnists who might be considered "heirs" to her style of writing and reporting. How would modern-day editors react to her habit of injecting herself into every story (personal opinion, conversations with the interviewee, etc.)?

11. Photo/Illustration. This field has many aspects for investigation, from woodcuts to zinc etchings to photo-engraving. Students might follow the transition from merely enhancing or illustrating the text to selecting an action-filled photograph which carries a message equally as powerful as that of a headline. A different approach might have students research the influence on the profession which has occurred because of the heavy emphasis on photos by the Jazz Journalism tabloids.

12. Comic Strips. Students might want to discuss the changes and evolving nature of comic strips since "The Yellow Kid" began in 1896. Why are some humorous, some adventurous; why are some self-contained in one day, some continuing stories? What purpose do they serve?

13. Student Press Rights. Students should examine the First Amendment and the Hazelwood case. You might wish to include the interactive Hypercard Stack from the ACLU for Northern California as a tool for presenting some of this information. The Freedom Forum is another good source of material and information. Students should look for ways in which student rights differ from those of the public press, as well as ways in which they are the same. How can student publications remain independent of the school administration's desire for PR material, or should that be the purpose of student journalism?

Scholastic journalism WEEK

FROM THE JOURNALISM EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

February 22-28, 1998

Suggested Activities for Scholastic Journalism Week

The Journalism Education Association has scheduled February 22 - 28, 1998 as Scholastic Journalism Week. How you help promote this week is entirely up to you. It is hoped that your involvement and that of your students will serve to raise community consciousness regarding the benefits of scholastic journalism. Your students will learn both from the promotion and their celebration of an event holding major significance for them.

The following suggestions are intended to give you some ideas from which to start. For several of these ideas to be fully successful, you will need to establish good liaison with community leaders and local media people well in advance.

1. Career Faire. Invite guest speakers from all areas of the media to show the wide variety of career possibilities open to students interested in journalism. Work closely with other journalism instructors and the local newspaper, magazine, and broadcast media to coordinate a city- or area-wide event. Include news, sports, feature and editorial writers, photographers, broadcasters, and TV personalities, as well as representatives of the numerous support personnel who often work behind the scenes, such as press operators, sound and camera technicians, and administrators. Plan to make this event one that the entire student body can participate in.

2. Internships. Arrange for some of your journalism students to "shadow" a pro for a day. Try to match each student with someone working in the field of his or her special interest, possibly following a reporter, broadcaster, photographer, etc. through a typical day.

3. Meet the Press. Try to arrange tours of the local newspaper, radio and TV stations in your city. Perhaps they would schedule special tours for your students in addition to some sort of Open House for the general public during this Week.

4. Displays. As part of a school-wide consciousness-raising effort, here are several ways in which you can educate the student body:

A. Set up examples of old yearbooks and newspapers from your school, perhaps showing a historical progression up to the present time. This might include old typewriters, cameras, lead slug type, and gravure photos, coupled with contemporary DeskTop Publishing methods (ask your computer store for brochures and other materials to help with the visual display).

B. Set up an automatic continuous slide show explaining how a yearbook is printed and how a newspaper is printed.

C. Do a special issue of the newspaper, including some history of journalism and information on the Hazelwood case.

D. Have an Open House in the Journalism Room, where interested parents and community members can come and watch students actually putting the newspaper and yearbook together. Couple this with a special sales campaign for yearbooks.

5. Contests. Working with the local media people, conduct a writing and photo contest in your area. Give cash awards for the best local news story, human interest feature, sports story, and photos. Better yet, arrange for the winning work to be published during Scholastic Journalism Week.

6. Education. Obtain a copy of the video *The Story of the Free Press,* which was one episode in the series "Remember When..." prepared for HBO and shown in the spring of 1991. Arrange for it to be shown on your local cable or educational channel during the week. You might also want to use it in your journalism classroom. Also, a few years ago the ACLU for Northern California released a free inter-active Hypercard Stack designed for students in grades 7 through 12. Although specific to California, much of it is applicable throughout the U.S.

7. Bill of Rights. Staff members could re-phrase some of the freedoms guaranteed in the Bill of Rights, and take a poll of the school. How many think students should have these freedoms? The staff could discuss the results of their survey, and their own understanding of these rights, focusing especially on the First Amendment's guarantee of freedom of speech. Some students may want to do a little research into legal interpretations over the past 200 years.

8. T-Shirts, Buttons, Posters advocating student press rights. If these are well done, they will sell to the general student body. Your students can use the weeks prior to Scholastic Journalism Week to design and prepare them.

9. Public Relations Information. Notify the local media at least two to three weeks in advance by sending press releases stating the activities you have planned for Scholastic Journalism Week. This could include public service spot announcements on the local radio and TV stations. You could put signs—or even a display— in local businesses, promoting Scholastic Journalism Week. Have bulletin or PA announcements at school. Provide an interesting tidbit ("news byte") about journalism each day.

10. Involve Your Staff in helping plan and execute their own promotions. Most students are familiar with using the brainstorming process to tackle major projects. If the concept of promoting Scholastic Journalism Week is presented to them as an important activity, they will probably come up with their own exciting ways to bring Scholastic Journalism Week to the attention of their student bodies and communities.

11. Long-Term Goals. Begin working with the local media for more direct inclusion of student journalist material. In a few communities the professional press has already taken this step, frequently offering an entire page or two once a week to students who meet certain standards (often involving reporting/writing skills and ability to meet deadlines). A few radio stations have also moved in this direction. Seek out sympathetic community leaders who can help you develop public support for greater student involvement.

Scholastic journalism WEEK

FROM THE JOURNALISM EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

February 22-28, 1998

Sample Press Release for Scholastic Journalism Week

Thousands of journalism students throughout the country are joining in promoting Scholastic Journalism Week February 22-28, 1998. The national observance is being sponsored by the Journalism Education Association.

Students from New York to California are planning a variety of activities to call attention to the important role played by student newspapers, yearbooks, and other school media in their communities, emulating the vital roles performed by responsible American journalists in helping to secure and maintain a free nation.

Students at [*your school*] have planned a series of activities to commemorate this event. In addition to a week-long display of journalism tools and products from long ago to the present time, a special Career Faire on [*day of week*] will feature members of the professional media, followed on [*day of week*] when selected journalism students will spend a day with a professional journalist in the area. An Open House for parents and community members to watch student journalists in action will be held from [*hours*] on [*day of week*]. A special screening of *The Story of the Free Press* will be presented on [*name of station*] at [*time*] on [*day of week*].

[*Name of paper*] is jointly sponsoring a contest for scholastic journalists with the local schools. Winning entries will be published in this paper on [*day of week*].

[NB: These paragraphs could serve nicely as the foundation for quotes from one or more well-known community leaders or respected citizens. If you show them the paragraphs, they are likely to respond with a few comments which you can use as quotes, perhaps as a summary for the entire article. Customizing the press release by including comments from citizens of your own community will make it more interesting to your reading public.]

Scholastic journalism WEEK
FROM THE JOURNALISM EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
February 22-28, 1998

Sample Editorial for Scholastic Journalism Week

Journalism education provides an essential service not only for the professional press, which is always alert for well-trained writers and photographers, but more importantly for society as a whole, which depends on responsible journalists to provide the public with accurate information about government, business, and other areas of societal interest.

Scholastic journalism programs offer some of the best opportunities for students to gain insights into the working process of the press. They are called upon to master nearly all the functions of their professional counterparts, from the more obvious tasks of interviewing, photographing and writing to the on-going ethical discussions so vital to the social health of a free society. They quickly learn that rights are balanced by responsibilities, that facts need to be organized, weighed, and double-checked, and that even opinion writing needs a firm base from which to develop.

Scholastic journalism programs provide some of the best opportunities for students to grasp the complexities of social interaction when working on group projects. They quickly discover that personal feelings must be set aside in order to accomplish the task at hand; in short, they learn how to get along with other people. They learn to consider opposing viewpoints in an effort to provide balanced coverage. They learn to be compassionate without losing their objectivity.

Scholastic journalism programs also provide excellent opportunities for students to learn to express themselves clearly, succinctly, and forcefully. They learn to select words which will inform their readers quickly and accurately. They learn to entertain, persuade, reflect. They have begun the process of becoming responsible citizens of their community.

The press has long been called the Fourth Estate, referring to its role as watchdog over governmental and commercial excesses. Local, state and national governments rely on an informed public to function properly, while the public depends on responsible media to provide that information. Efforts throughout the [*your city or county*] community to recognize and promote the development of skilled, responsible journalists, such as the observance of Scholastic Journalism Week at [*your school*], should be encouraged.

[NB: This article could also be used as a Letter to the Editor.]

Scholastic journalism WEEK
FROM THE JOURNALISM EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
February 22-28, 1998

A study published in 1994 reported that students who had worked on a newspaper or yearbook staff in high school did better in high school and college than students who had had no journalism experience. Areas in which journalism students did better included the following:

- High school students who were members of a journalism staff had higher grade-point-averages in English, social studies, math and science than students who were not members of a journalism staff.
- High school students who were members of a journalism staff scored at the 81st percentile on the English portion of the ACT test. High school students who were not members of a journalism staff scored at the 69th percentile. Students with journalism staff experience also did better on the social studies and math portions of the test.
- High school students who were members of a journalism staff reported that high school journalism classes helped their development of English skills better than any other course including English courses.
- High school students who were members of a journalism staff were more involved in extra-curricular activities such as clubs, student government and were elected captain of a team more often than students who were not members of a journalism staff. They were also more likely to take an advanced placement English course and to volunteer in the community.
- College students who were members of a high school journalism staff had higher grade-point-averages in their first college English courses than students who were not members of a high school journalism staff.
- College students who were members of a high school journalism staff had higher overall grade-point-averages than students who were not members of a high school journalism staff.
- College students who were members of a high school journalism staff wrote better on the ACT COMP (College Outcome Measures Program) test than students who were not members of a high school journalism staff.

from the book ***Journalism Kids Do Better*** *by Jack Dvorak, Larry Lain and Tom Dickson*

Scholastic journalism WEEK

FROM THE JOURNALISM EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

February 22-28, 1998

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